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ABSTRACT

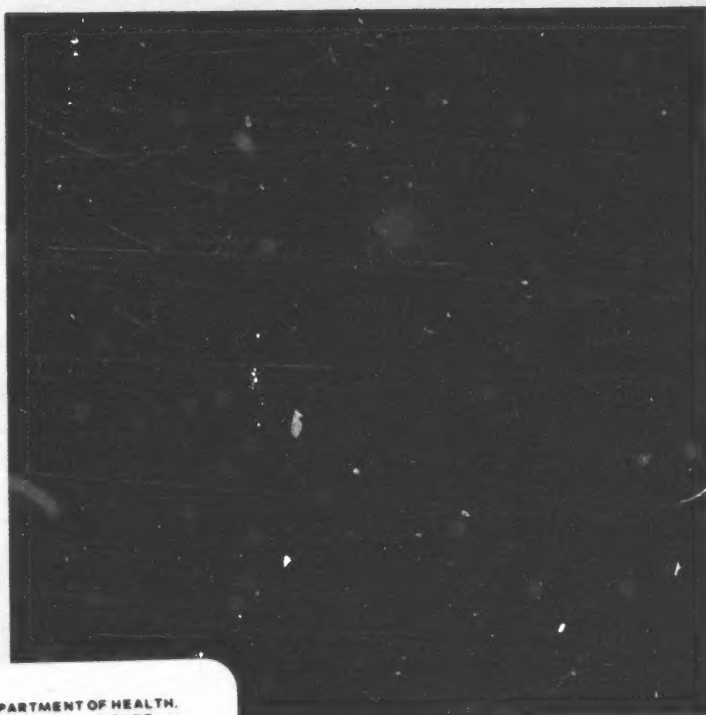
This report describes the status of blacks in higher education during the 1973-74 academic year and also is a reference work that summarizes data about blacks in higher education in general. Discussed are: (1) problems of the data on blacks in college; (2) access, distribution, and persistence of blacks in college; (3) barriers to equal educational opportunity for blacks; (4) impact of higher education on black income; (5) federal policies related to equal educational opportunity. (Author/KE)

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SUMMARY OF
EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY
FOR BLACKS IN U.S. HIGHER EDUCATION:
AN ASSESSMENT

REPORT No. 1
THE 1973-74 ACADEMIC YEAR

INSTITUTE FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL POLICY
HOWARD UNIVERSITY
WASHINGTON, D.C.
1975

FOREWORD

The Institute for the Study of Educational Policy (ISEP) developed out of the need both for a national clearinghouse and for a research center on the issues affecting equal educational opportunities in higher education. As a national clearinghouse, ISEP aims to serve policy makers and interested researchers by keeping abreast of developments in higher education, within the public and private sectors. In addition, ISEP assumes responsibility for reporting such information to its constituents.

As a research and policy center, ISEP has three program objectives:

- To prepare a periodic critical assessment of the dynamic status and needs of Blacks in higher education.
- To assess the impact of law and social science research on the status of Blacks in higher education.
- To use old models creatively and to develop new models and theories of higher education for Blacks with implications for elementary and secondary education.

Through its annual reports and monographs, through its seminars and workshops, and through its announcements and public testimony, the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy attempts to fill a vacuum in the organized body of knowledge about higher educational opportunities of Blacks and other minorities. In doing

so, ISEP attempts to make a significant contribution to the formulation and evaluation of contemporary educational policy.

The first annual report on the status and needs of Blacks in higher education, Equal Educational Opportunity for Blacks in U.S. Higher Education: An Assessment, is designed to function as a single year study, describing the status of Blacks in the 1973-74 academic year, and as a general reference work, summarizing the best available data on Blacks in higher education.

A massive undertaking such as this report is the result of the time and talents of many people. We wish to acknowledge their contributions in helping the Institute fulfill a crucial part of its mission. The data in the report were available to the Institute through the cooperation and assistance of many people. We especially thank the staffs of the American Council on Education, the U.S. Census Bureau, the Educational Testing Service, the College Entrance Examination Board, the ERIC Higher Education Clearinghouse, the Institute for Services to Education, the National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students, the U.S. Office of Education, the National Board on Graduate Education, and the Office for Civil Rights (DHEW), and also the many professional associations that so willingly provided data for this report.

We would like to thank the following people whose painstaking and thoughtful review of earlier drafts of the report enhanced the quality of the final product: Sharon Bush, David Nolan, Donna Wilson, Langley Spurlock, Mary Lepper and Patricia Fleming.

Within the Institute this report was the result of teamwork, cooperation, and dedication. To the secretaries, research assistants, and senior fellows we extend our sincere thanks. We wish to acknowledge the special contributions of the following Institute secretaries and research assistants: Carla Mahdi, Elene Makonnen, Edith McRae, Mattie McFadden, Margaret Nealy, Vicki Turner, Geneva Sanders, Julian Smith, and Karen Yvonne Wilson. We also thank Julius Hobson, Jr., editorial assistant, for his many contributions to the development of this report.

The thoughtful development of the discussions and the analyses in this report reflect the creativity and sensitivity of the Institute senior fellows and special advisors. To the senior fellows Faustine Jones, John Fleming, and Sam Wong, we extend our sincere appreciation. To David Swinton who provided the economic analyses in this report and who was the principal writer of Chapter 4, the "Impact of Higher Education on Black Income", we extend our thanks for his excellent contributions. We would also like to thank Michael Abramowitz who assisted in the conceptualization of this report and in the writing of Chapter 5, "Federal Policies Related to Equal Educational Opportunity".

The massive editorial work reflected in the quality of this report is the result of the time consuming and painstaking efforts of Jane Midgley, principal editor for this report. Ms. Midgley's contributions led not only to the smooth production of this report, but also its attractive and readable appearance.

Finally, to senior fellow Elizabeth Abramowitz, who as principal investigator, conceived of, organized, and wrote this report, we extend our congratulations for a job well done and our appreciation for the success of so large an undertaking.

The Institute also wishes to thank the Ford Foundation and especially Benjamin Payton and Peter de Janosi, for their timely assistance and support of the Institute and of this report. Through its support the Ford Foundation has demonstrated its commitment to the mission of the Institute and the need for it.

Dr. Kenneth S. Tollett, Director ISEP
and Chairman ISEP Advisory Board

PREFACE

Equal Educational Opportunity for Blacks in U. S. Higher Education: An Assessment brings together, for the first time, a wide range of information on Blacks in higher education in the 1973-74 academic year. The Institute for the Study of Educational Policy presents this report as the first in a series of annual reports on current educational opportunities for Blacks in higher education. Each report in the series will focus on a specific school year and will include follow-up documents recommending state and federal action. The first report covers the 1973-74 academic year, the most recent full academic year for which data were available.

In the midst of so much apparent progress for Blacks in their push for full participation in American institutions, especially education, it is important to take a careful measure of that progress and to point the way to improvements in policies, programs, and attitudes. In this report, the equality of educational opportunity is assessed as one social indication of the improved, but still unequal status of Blacks in American society. Blacks have made significant gains in U.S. higher education in the last decade. But even with the help of supportive legislation, court decisions, affirmative action programs, and increased financial aid, the achievement has been irregular and inadequate. This report provides

an exhaustive review of the recent status of Blacks in higher education, the economic returns of education for Blacks, the continuing barriers to equal educational opportunity, and the problems of the racial data by which public policies sometimes are determined.

What is equal educational opportunity? It is a societal goal that aims to provide the opportunity for all students to fulfill their promise and ambitions, and to rise to whatever heights their ability, interest, and determination can reach through education. To achieve this goal, opportunity cannot be limited by the color of one's skin or sex, the nature of one's religious beliefs, or by family income and private circumstance. Equal educational opportunity in college is, therefore, the opportunity to enter not just some colleges, but all colleges; not just some fields, but all fields; and to earn not just certain degrees, but all degrees, unencumbered by barriers related to race, institutional practices, and personal attitudes.

Equal educational opportunity depends upon certain dynamic conditions. In this report, the necessary conditions are defined by three concepts: access, distribution, and persistence. Access to college, though essential to equal educational opportunity, is only the first step. In addition, qualified students must be able to choose and distribute themselves throughout a wide variety of institutions, programs, and fields of study, and must be provided the opportunity to stay in college and earn advanced degrees.

The ideal yardstick by which to measure equal educational opportunity

is the extent to which all students, regardless of race and circumstance, are able to fulfill their educational aspirations. But, because we do not know educational aspirations in all instances, the available data on college enrollment and attainment do not easily lend themselves to such an assessment. Therefore, the concept of parity is used to measure equal educational opportunity in this report.

The distinction is made between parity with the availability pool, which this report uses, and population parity. Population parity refers to the proportional representation of all members of a group in college, regardless of whether all members are eligible for college. As a long range goal, population parity is desirable and necessary; however, as an immediate measure of equal educational opportunity it does not take into account eligibility for college.

Parity with the availability pool refers to the proportional representation of eligible students in college. Where the proportional representation of a group in the availability pool is greater than their representation in college, the group is underrepresented in college. Where the proportional representation in the availability pool is smaller than their proportion of college students, the group is overrepresented in college. And, where the two proportions are equal, equal educational opportunity in access, distribution, or persistence is approximated.

Because of conflicts and inconsistencies in racial statistics, the data in this report are treated as estimated. (For technical

discussion see Chapter 1.) The problems of obtaining accurate statistics, and of formulating realistic policies without them, need attention if the true position of Blacks in higher education is to be understood and improved. Included in this report, then, is an analysis of the differences in statistics reported by data collectors, the limitations in interpretation of these statistics, and the policy questions for which data on Blacks are needed but not available.

Equal Educational Opportunity for Blacks in U.S. Higher Education: An Assessment is designed to serve not only as a discussion of the status of Blacks for a given academic year, but also as a reference document on Blacks in higher education. In order to fulfill the latter purpose, detailed tables are included throughout this report and in the appendices. The inadequacies and weaknesses in the data are stressed so that the limitations of the tables for reference and research purposes are known.

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CHAPTER
SUMMARY
OF
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Chapter 1: Problems of the Data on Blacks in College

The problems of the data on Blacks in higher education necessarily limit the assessment of the status and needs of Blacks that follows in Chapters 2 through 5. The problems of the data are four-fold. First, there are methodological differences in identifying race and weighting procedures which result in inflated or deflated estimates of Black college enrollment. Second, errors in usage due to inappropriate statistical techniques and to the use of unrepresentative samples of Black students and colleges as the sole sources of data on which conclusions about Blacks in college can be made create often ignored data problems. The third problem is the incompatibility of the data from different sources which limits the accuracy of the data such that both the total student and the Black student absolute enrollments reported by different researchers may disagree significantly. Fourth, missing data limit any assessment of the status of Blacks in higher education. The missing data that can be regarded as basic includes: associate arts, baccalaureate, masters, and professional degrees earned by race and type of institution. These data are not available from either public or private national collectors, nor at the state level.

By revising the federally-funded annual Higher Education General Information Surveys to include racial items on the enrollment and degrees questionnaires, needed data could be collected routinely. In addition, by coordinating state and federal racial data collection activities in higher education, both the burden and the costs of such data collection could be shared by the federal and state governments.

Chapter 2: Access, Distribution, and Persistence of Blacks in College

Three distinct but related concepts are used to measure different aspects of equal educational opportunity; these are access--the opportunity to enroll in college, distribution--the type of institution attended and the field of study, and persistence--the opportunity to remain in college and complete training in a timely fashion. The 1973-74 academic year was a year in which absolute total and Black college student enrollment dropped to levels below the previous year's enrollment. Black college student enrollment in Fall 1973 was only 4,000 students higher than the Black enrollment in Fall 1971.

Although the total number of Blacks with a college education has increased in the last twenty years, especially since 1968, Blacks continue to be underrepresented in college. A major factor contributing to this is the high rate of high school dropouts among young Blacks. An estimated 12.1% of the 24 million high school age students age 14 to 19 years old were dropouts in Fall 1973. Of these 2.9 million dropouts, 23% were Black. In Fall 1972, of the 2 million

dropouts, 17.4% were Black.

In Fall 1973, there were an estimated 684,000 Black students enrolled in college. Black students equalled 8.3% of the total 8,179,000 estimated enrollment of students under 35 years old. When the college enrollment of Blacks was compared with their proportion of the college availability pool, it was found that, assuming constant rate of enrollment, an additional 130,930 Black students would have to have been enrolled in college in Fall 1973 in order for there to have been access parity with their availability (20% more Blacks should have been in undergraduate schools and 13.5% more in graduate and professional schools).

While access to some form of higher education may have occurred for many Black high school graduates, distribution by type of institution had not. Blacks in higher education were increasingly concentrated in the lower cost, less selective institutions, without major graduate or research programs. Blacks were most likely to be enrolled in public two-year colleges and predominantly Black four-year colleges in 1973-74 academic year. Indeed, 40% of all Blacks in college in Fall 1973 were in two-year institutions. Blacks were underrepresented in public universities and in private four-year colleges. Thus, Blacks were distributed unevenly throughout the hierarchy of higher educational institutions in 1973.

The tendency for Blacks to enter Education rather than other fields of study increased between the baccalaureate and doctoral levels. Blacks were most likely to leave technical and scientific

fields as they moved into advanced training, and most likely to enter or remain in Education or professional fields. Law and Medicine continued to enroll the largest proportion of Blacks in professional schools in 1973. In these fields, however, as in all other graduate and professional fields, the proportional Black enrollment was very small.

Persistence is defined as staying in college and earning a degree. It is measured by dropout rates and degrees earned. Persistence data on minorities in higher education were more scarce than either access or distribution data. Indeed, what is unknown about the persistence of Blacks and other minorities in higher education outweighs what is known. With the exception of doctoral degrees awarded, there is no regular national collection of data on any degrees earned by minorities in the United States. In addition, there is no regular national collection of data on dropout or transfer rates of minorities in U.S. higher education.

Based on the limited data available, it appears that the one year dropout rates of Blacks and whites in 1973 were about equal. The proportion of the college students under 25 years old enrolled the previous year who returned in 1973 was equal for Blacks and whites. About 73% of the Black and white students enrolled in 1972 returned to college in 1973. Thus, over a one year period, recent information suggests equal persistence.

The type of institution attended and high school grade point average may affect dropout rates. Students in four-year colleges

are less likely to dropout than are their counterparts in two-year colleges. Compared to whites attending the same type of institution, the dropout rates of Blacks, some studies indicate, are slightly higher. As might be expected, the higher the high school grade point average, the lower the college dropout rate. Thus, when high school grade point averages are taken into consideration, racial differences in the dropout rates of Black and white college students disappear.

Preliminary data from a special survey suggest that in Spring 1974, an estimated 5% of the baccalaureates awarded went to Black students. Of these awards to Black students, approximately one-half were awarded by historically Black colleges. In the previous academic year, Spring 1973, historically Black colleges awarded 6,231 graduate and professional degrees. The professional degrees were primarily in Law and Medicine. The masters degrees were primarily in Education, and the doctoral degrees in Physical and Natural Sciences.

Nationally, Black students received an estimated 2% of the doctorates awarded in Spring 1973. For all races, the doctorates were overwhelmingly awarded to males. The largest proportion of female doctorates within a racial group, however, were earned by Black women, who received 26% of the doctorates awarded to native-born Blacks in Spring 1973. At Black colleges, where the majority of the graduate degrees went to Black students, more than one-half (58%) of the doctorates awarded in Spring 1973 were in scientific fields. Nationally, 60% of the doctorates awarded to native-born Blacks were in Education.

In contrast, only 23% of the doctorates awarded to native-born whites were in Education. The number of Blacks earning doctorates in Education reflected a shift in field of study away from the sciences and into Education as Blacks moved from undergraduate to graduate schools, especially in predominantly white institutions. Thus, as persistence in college increased, Blacks narrowed their distribution across fields of study. A factor possibly contributing to this shift was the perceived greater employment opportunities for Blacks in Education.

In general, once Black students have gained access to four-year colleges and universities, they are likely to persist. Blacks and whites of the same age cohort differed not in whether they would complete training once admitted, but in the number of calendar years it would take. It took Blacks, on the average, longer than whites to complete college, because Blacks were more likely to switch from full- to part-time status, and because Blacks were more likely to have intermittent college attendance. In Education, for example, it took Blacks, on the average, 15.27 calendar years and whites 12.51 years to go from the baccalaureate to the doctorate. In all other fields, it took Blacks, on the average 10.10 calendar years and whites 7.61 years to go from the baccalaureate to the doctorate. However, both Black and white doctoral recipients were registered on campus for about 6 years, on the average. Thus, native-born Blacks in graduate programs, especially at the doctoral level, are likely to be slightly older than their native-born white classmates when they complete training. Why Blacks are likely to spread their college education over a longer period of time is discussed in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Barriers to Equal Educational Opportunity for Blacks

Barriers to equal educational opportunity are defined as categorical, educational, and psychosocial: categorical barriers arise from racial discrimination, educational barriers from neutral institutional policies and practices that have adverse racial impacts, and psychosocial barriers from the lifestyles and values of students and faculty.

Two factors often cited as explanations of the differences in educational attainment and college enrollment of whites and Blacks are aspirations and family income. It was found that Black students--high school and college--tended to have equal or higher educational aspirations than white students. Yet, Black students tended to have educational attainment below their aspirations and below those of their white counterparts. It was also found that when income was held constant, Blacks had proportionately fewer high school graduates enrolled or with college experience than did whites from the same income group. At the higher income levels, the gap between white and Black rate of college participation was even larger than at lower income levels. When Blacks in the availability pool were given the income of whites, they were still unequal in college participation, although the difference was reduced by three-fifths. The remaining difference in the rate of college participation of whites and Blacks was not due to family income, but rather was the result of categorical and other educational and psychosocial barriers.

The educational barriers to equal educational opportunity were identified as: admissions testing, college costs, financial aid, family income, educational preparation and academic failure, transfer policies, counseling practices, recruitment, and extracurricular activities and student employment. In terms of impact on equal educational opportunity for Blacks, the financial barriers--college costs, financial aid, and family income--were the most important.

The relationship of financial barriers to access and distribution of college students was such that Black and white students from more financially advantaged homes were more likely to be enrolled in private institutions and universities. Students from low-income families were likely to be enrolled in public institutions and two-year colleges. Regardless of talent, as measured by high school grade point average, the income of the parent was related to the type of institution attended. In addition, the expected family contributions of Black families were such that without financial assistance few Black students would have been able to afford more than the tuition at public institutions and two-year colleges.

The lack of money from either public or private sources also meant that few Black students would continue their education at the graduate or professional level. While in 1973 Blacks equalled approximately 8% of the total enrollment in undergraduate school, the proportional enrollment of Blacks in graduate and professional school was only 4 to 5%.

Of the remaining educational barriers, admissions testing has

received the greatest amount of attention. Researchers have concluded that achievement and aptitude tests were better than other measures in predicting first-year college grades. However, the test scores are directly related to family income such that the social class consequences of testing in admissions leave two options: to eliminate or to de-emphasize the use of standardized tests in college admissions.

Finally, psychosocial barriers influenced the stereotypic thinking of students and faculty in selecting not only the type of institution to attend but also the major subject, and advanced training. It was found that Black students tended to feel more alienated on white than on Black campuses. Yet they would remain on the white campuses and graduate if they had the academic ability and resiliency to resist what they regarded as a hostile environment. Black students, however, were likely to be reluctant and sometimes discouraged from entering fields of study in which there were few Blacks, such as scientific and technical fields. Fear of failure on the part of the student and lack of acceptance on the part of the faculty, together formed psychosocial barriers to program distribution. Thus, in spite of dramatic gains in college enrollment and attainment, barriers to equal educational opportunity, some unique to Blacks and others shared by other minority and disadvantaged groups, persisted in the 1973-74 academic year.

Chapter 4: Impact of Higher Education on Black Income

While for the population in general, the rate of return to education has in fact decreased within the last few years, the return to education for Blacks has not. Completing four or more years of college education produced significant gains in average Black income and lifetime earnings. Using 1969 income, it was found that there were significant income differences between the college educated and noncollege educated Black males and females. The gains in income were largest for Black males with five or more years of college, but were small for Black males with fewer years of college. Indeed with less than five years of college, the relative standing of Black males to all males in annual income was lower, and Black gains in income from experience were small. For Black females, completing four years of college produced the largest gains in income. A college education at all levels produced higher relative average income for Black females than was true of the all female population.

In relation of income to access, persistence, and employment discrimination, it was found that for college educated Black males, mean incomes and aggregate Black male incomes increased modestly from improvements in persistence, while Black female incomes barely changed. Achieving equality of access to college, however, produced significant income gains for both Black males and females. And, improving both persistence and access simultaneously increased Black male income still further, but had only a modest effect on Black female incomes.

The most dramatic effect on Black male income, however, was caused by reducing the income differentials of Blacks and whites with the same amount of college education (i.e. reducing employment discrimination). For Black females, this resulted in a slight deterioration of their position, because of their greater labor force participation than all women in the same educational cohort. Ending employment discrimination and providing equal access and persistence simultaneously would increase the aggregate Black male income by 26.5%, while increasing the aggregate Black female income by 7.8%. In other words, the effect of unequal educational and employment opportunities was an annual income loss at the 1969 income level of \$8.507 billion a year to Blacks.

Chapter 5. Federal Policies Related to Equal Educational Opportunity

The status of Blacks in higher education in 1973, as in all other years, was a result of the combined actions of federal, state, and local governments, in addition to the actions of higher educational institutions and the private sector. The major federal response to equal educational opportunity has been the Education Amendments of 1972, especially the student assistance programs which attempted to remove financial barriers to access and distribution, and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 - Title VI which attempted to remove categorical barriers based on race to equal educational opportunity.

The number of Black students participating in BEOGs, SEOGs, NDSLs, and College Work-Study programs was greater than their proportion of the college student enrollment. The number of awards to Blacks in the programs was such that the programs could not have assisted all of the Black college students from families with incomes less than \$7,500. The programs may have assisted more than half of these low-income Black students enrolled in college, however, by meeting some of their financial need. In the federal student aid programs, it was found that Blacks were most likely to receive awards in College Work-Study and the Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grant Programs from 1968 to 1973. Whites during this same period tended to receive National Direct Student Loans. In the federally insured loan programs (NDSL and GSLP), Black freshmen borrowed more often than white freshmen attending the same type of institution. As individual borrowers,

however, the average federal loans to white freshmen were larger, as were loans to higher income freshmen of both races.

In 1973, Black students received 18% of the 105,000 BEOGs grants. Black BEOGs recipients equalled 12% of all Black full-time first year college students in 1972. Of all Blacks in college who applied for BEOGs for Fall 1973, 20.6% received them. The first year implementation of the Basic Educational Opportunity Grant program in 1973 was impeded by the short time in which to apply for the BEOGs (6 weeks) and the use of different applications for each federal student assistance program. In addition, the advertising of BEOGs was such that students most likely to know about it were between the ages of 16 and 21 and were enrolled in universities or were high school seniors. Two-year and four-year college students and past high school graduates were the least likely to know about BEOGs. This undoubtedly contributed to the underutilization of the new grants program by entering full-time freshmen in its first year.

Another critical problem in implementation which affected several student aid programs was the definition of dependence. It was found that personal college costs of dependent and independent Black and white students attending the same type of institution differed. The most likely explanation is the difference in the amount of financial aid the students received from public and private sources. Thus, independent whites followed by dependent Black students, who were largely females, were the most likely recipients of student aid in 1973. Conversely, the least likely students to receive aid were independent

Black students, who were largely male, and dependent white students.

Enforcement of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 - Title VI undoubtedly contributed to the increased access of Blacks to previously all-white institutions. Within states and across regions of the country, however, access of Blacks to college remained unequal, a point underscored in Adams v. Richardson. Because current enforcement of the Title VI does not require the routine analysis of data on educational practices and policies to determine if they adversely affect access, distribution, or persistence of Blacks and other minorities, the enforcement of Title VI has been extremely limited. Where enforcement of Title VI has been active, Black access has been facilitated.

Finally, the need for federal responsibility to facilitate access, distribution, and persistence of talented and able minorities in graduate and professional schools by removing financial barriers is in the public interest. Minorities are needed among the ranks of highly trained professionals as leaders, because of the unique understanding and sensitivity they can bring to solving this society's critical internal programs. Federal responsibility is also needed to help meet the nation's commitment to equal educational opportunity. A combination of need-based grants with a maximum of \$5,000 and average \$3,000, research and teaching fellowships, and cost-of-education allowance for institutions are the essential elements of such a federal effort.

Appendices

The appendices of the report include detailed tables that supplement those found in the body of the report. Appendix A reviews federal policies and programs affecting higher education. It also includes federal appropriations in Fiscal Year 1973 and 1974 for higher education programs, the distribution of federal student aid money to the states, and funding of state operated student aid programs. Appendix A also includes the number of Black, white, and other students participating in the federal campus-based student aid programs in the Fiscal Years 1968 through 1970. Finally, in Appendix A the states in each U.S. Office of Education region are listed.

In Appendix B a survey of national data collectors is summarized. This survey studied the size and causes of discrepancies in enrollment data collected by public and private collectors. The survey found that the degree of compatibility of data from different sources was influenced by whether racial data were expressed as percents, whether identifying race was required, and whether the data were collected in the Fall or Spring semester.

In Appendix C data on land-grant colleges are included along with a discussion of Title III (HEA-1965) programs to aid developing institutions. Appendix C also includes the Fall 1973 enrollment and number of institutions at public and private two-year colleges, a comparison by state, and male/female enrollment in transfer and terminal programs at two-year colleges.

Appendix D includes supplemental data on Black students in the Black graduate availability pool, and doctorates earned in Spring 1973 by race and field of study. It also includes racial data on Fall 1973 enrollment at public and private Ph.D.-granting institutions, and major fields of Black and white college students in Fall 1972. Appendix D also includes Black enrollment in selected professional and academic fields.

Appendix E includes data on health training costs and on admissions policies and practices at colleges and universities. It also reports the number of graduate and professional schools requiring one or more admissions tests by graduate and professional fields. Appendix E also includes detailed tables on the patterns of financial assistance by which Black students met their college costs in Fall 1973.

Appendix F reports the supporting data used in the discussion of categorical barriers. These data are the income redistribution figures for all Blacks in the availability pool to equal the income distribution of whites in the availability pool.

Appendix G lists the major publications used and cited in this report.